

## Responses to Questions/Concerns Raised by Oregon Forest Industries Council Regarding the Protecting Cold Water Criterion of Oregon's Temperature Water Quality Standard



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## Reasons for a Protecting Cold Water Criterion:

- A natural thermal regime provides best conditions for fish & other native aquatic organisms;\*
- There is ecological value in a diversity of temperatures, including streams colder than BBNC, in part because thermal diversity promotes aquatic biological productivity;\*
- Prevent accumulation of heat in fish-bearing reaches;\*
- Retain assimilative capacity to buffer climate variation & climate change.

\*From Summary of 2003 Technical Advisory Committee findings

## Responses to Forest Industry Questions/Concerns:

- 1. Paired watershed studies add to the body of science on the association of new harvest treatments on stream temperature & short-term fish response, but not in a way that shows a lack of need for the Protecting Cold Water Criterion.
  - a. Hinkle & Alsea studies show increases in fish-bearing streams within the range of responses from RipStream.
  - Biological inference of WRC studies is correlative, short-term, and at the sub-catchment scale in lower order tributaries, and primarily within the distribution of resident cutthroat trout.
  - c. The purpose of the standard is maintenance and restoration of natural thermal regimes across the landscape for all aquatic species.
  - d. Prevention of short-term, reach level effects to fish are a goal to the standard, but are not the primary purpose.
  - e. Meeting the standard preserves the capacity of waterbodies to assimilate natural fluctuations in temperature due to year-to-year climate variations & to better maintain cold-water communities in a warming climate (Bisson *et al* 2003, Mote 2003, INR 2009, Ruesch *et al* 2012).

- 2. Thermal diversity across the landscape is biologically necessary. Small increases in stream temperature can have negative effects on fish populations, particularly when occurring across the landscape.
  - a. Temperature 303(d) listings & TMDLs exist across Oregon.
  - b. Heating of headwaters reduces the extent of downstream waters at optimal growth & physiological temperatures & increases the extent at high-risk & lethal temperatures for rearing & migration.
  - c. Temperature effects typically occur on a continuum; increases from natural thermal potential increase risk to fish (McCullough 1999, US EPA 2001).
  - d. The natural thermal regime (NTR) is dynamic & variable, promoting biological diversity & resilience among fish populations & other native aquatic organisms (e.g. Watters *et al* 2003, Olden & Naiman 2010).
    - i. Landscape alteration & climate change alter the mean & *the variance* of these temperature components (Steel *et al* 2012).
    - ii. Timing of fish life history attributes (adult migration, spawning, fry emergence, smolt migration) is partially mediated by the NTR (Vannote & Sweeney 1980).
    - iii. Homing to natal streams & natural selective forces (including those imposed by NTR) result in distinct, *locally adapted* populations (Hillborn *et al* 2003).
  - e. Thermal diversity promotes aquatic biological productivity.
    - Fish use thermal diversity (temporally & spatially) so impacts to the "pattern" of temperature can be as significant as changes to the mean or maximum temperature (see DEQ 2003).
    - ii. Fish detect & exploit thermal heterogeneity to avoid heat stress & to meet metabolic & reproductive requirements (Berman & Quinn 1991, Hodgson & Quinn 1991, Ebersole et al 2003, Torgersen et al 2012).
    - iii. Variation in thermal regimes directly influences:
      - 1. Metabolic rates, physiology, & life-history traits of aquatic ectotherms (see Holtby *et al* 1989 for salmonid example);
      - 2. Rates of important ecological processes such as nutrient cycling & productivity;
      - 3. Indirectly mediates biotic interactions (references in Olden & Naiman 2010).
  - f. Heat accumulation (& other homogenizing effects) can alter thermal heterogeneity before "average" main channel temperatures change (Poole & Berman 2001).
  - g. Multiple stressors in the environment must be considered. By preventing or reducing temperature stress, we reduce the risks due to multiple stressors on fish populations (e.g. OCCCP bottlenecks; e.g. Laetz *et al* 2014, Ray *et al* 2014).
  - h. When there is uncertainty, DEQ must make conservative choices to ensure protection of the resource.

- 3. Thermal loads do move downstream, heat loss mechanisms are much less efficient than heat gain by solar radiation, & dilution of thermal loads is not the same as dissipation, especially with multiple harvests.
  - a. In open canopy streams, input of solar radiation typically composes about 50% 90% of the total heat energy flux (Figures 1 & 2; see Johnson 2004, Benyahya *et al* 2012).
  - b. A single source's temperature effects become hard to track downstream, but DEQ calculates thermal loads for TMDLs & permits.
  - c. DEQ HeatSource modeling indicates long distances (>1000 meters) are required to lose thermal energy via evaporation & longwave radiation (when tributary & groundwater inputs are held constant).
    - i. HeatSource modeling on 2 RipStream sites (5556 & 7854) shows persistent temperature increases a kilometer or more from the end of harvest units (Figures 3, 4, & 5); and
    - ii. Harvest of an additional downstream unit on 5556 creates greater increase at confluence with Drift Creek (Figure 6).
  - d. Cole & Newton (2013) showed that with uncut units interspersed with harvest units, stream reaches showed overall increases in temperature trends post-harvest for 3 of 4 study reaches.
- 4. The current disturbance regime is very different than the pre-settlement disturbance regime in both frequency & type of disturbance.
  - a. Thermal recovery post-disturbance is 7-15 years, with 10 years as a reasonable midrange value (Johnson & Jones 2000; D'Souza *et al* 2011; Rex *et al* 2012; RipStream data, *unpublished*).
  - b. With a 40-year rotation (assuming steady yearly harvest rate), 25% of the private industrial forestland base would be in thermal recovery.
  - c. Based on change in Landsat land cover from 1985-2009 (Figure 7), the average percentage of private forestland (65.1% of total land area) in the MidCoast basin in the 10-yr thermal recovery period is 17% for the time period 1994-2009.
    - i. The total for all land uses combined is 10%.
    - ii. Varies over time & space.
      - 1. In 2008, 39.9% of private forestland in the Middle Siletz River watershed was in thermal recovery.
      - 2. In 1996, 5.3% of private forestland in the Drift Creek watershed was in thermal recovery. [Maximum of 34.9% in 2008]
  - d. Based on change in Landsat land cover from 1985-2009, the average percentage of private forestland riparian areas in the MidCoast basin (43.8% of total riparian area (within 100ft of streams)) in the 10-yr thermal recovery period is 14.1% for the time period 1994-2009.
    - i. The average for private industrial forestland is 15.6% (36.2% of total riparian area) & for private nonindustrial forestland is 10.2% (7.6% of total riparian area).

- ii. The percentage of recently+chronically disturbed riparian areas is 20.7% for private forestlands during the same time period (20.4% & 21.8% for industrial & nonindustrial, respectively).
- iii. The average recent disturbance for riparian areas of all land uses collectively is 8.7%. The average chronic disturbance for riparian areas of all land uses collectively is 14.0%.
- iv. Varies over time & space.
  - 1. In 2008, 36.7% of private industrial forestland riparian area in the Middle Siletz River watershed was in thermal recovery (maximum). The minimum of 14.1% occurred in 1994 (Figures 8 & 9).
  - 2. In 1996, 0.2% of private industrial forestland riparian area in the Drift Creek watershed was in thermal recovery (minimum). The maximum of 25.8% occurred in 2008 (Figures 10 & 11).
  - 3. In 1999, 9.7% of private industrial forestland riparian area in the Lake Creek watershed was in thermal recovery (minimum). The maximum of 34.5% occurred in 2008 (Figures 12 & 13).
- e. Agee (1990) estimates that historically (prior to Euro-American settlement) an average 0.24% and 0.67% of cedar/spruce/hemlock and western hemlock/Douglas-fir forests, respectively, burned annually.
  - i. Gives an average area in thermal recovery estimate of 2.4% for cedar/spruce/hemlock & 6.7% for western hemlock/Douglas-fir.
- f. Wimberly (2002) estimates that a median of 17% of Oregon's coastal province would be in early successional condition (<30 years since fire of varying severity).
  - i. Using 10 years as above, Wimberly's estimate gives 5.7% of forestlands historically in thermal recovery.
- g. High-severity fires leave more wood & live vegetation than clearcut harvest, and there are differences between unmanaged terrestrial & riparian early succession compared to clearcut harvest & replanting methods (Reeves *et al* 1995, Reeves *et al* 2006, Swanson *et al* 2011).
- h. Fire return intervals in western Oregon range from 100-400 years. Shorter intervals typically are associated with less severity (Morrison & Swanson 1990).
- i. Fire return for high severity fires is typically 200 years (Wimberly 2002), compared to harvest rotation of 40 years.
- j. Periodic large scale disturbances create a mosaic of riparian & aquatic habitats (Bisson et al 2003). Pulses of sediment & large wood are delivered by post-fire erosion, in contrast to chronic inputs.
  - It is important to conserve & restore processes by managing for natural disturbances or like natural disturbances, not merely by creating structures or conditions.
- k. Generally, riparian areas along streams higher in watersheds tend to burn along with upland forests, while riparian areas lower in watersheds are less likely to burn & more prone to flood disturbance (Reeves *et al* 2006, Pettit & Naiman 2007).

- i. Fire can be less common in riparian areas due to higher moisture content & humidity.
- ii. Some studies (e.g. Tollefson *et al* 2004, Olson & Agee 2005) have found no difference between upland & riparian fire frequency, particularly when riparian vegetation is similar to upland vegetation.
- iii. Riparian areas often have higher fuel loads (higher productivity) & in prolonged drought can become more fire-prone.
- iv. Riparian fires tend to be very patchy, primarily burning fine fuels. Conditions retard fuel drying & decrease severity. Extent & spread are complicated by ecosystem heterogeneity.
- In very dry climatic conditions, riparian corridors can act as a route for fire to spread (wind tunnel effect). More often, riparian areas act as a natural fire break.
- vi. Harvesting increases fuel loads & opens up the canopy, allowing faster drying of fuels.
- vii. Riparian vegetation diversity & adaptations along with better access to water lead to faster recovery.
- 5. If taking a non-conservative approach to the effects of a single harvest, then we must address actual landscape conditions & the effects of multiple harvests.

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